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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

PROBLEM PATTERNS OF THE JAMAICAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT

BY

© MERLE ELIZABETH ANN RISEBOROUGH

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Problem Patterns of the Jamaican High School Student" submitted by Merle Elizabeth Ann Riseborough in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with the relatedness of adolescent personal-social problems to achievement. It also examines possible differences, in identifying problems, between underachievers and normal achievers, males and females, rural and urban groups in the Jamaican context.

The sample was composed of 198 students, randomly selected from the fifth forms of eight schools in rural and urban areas of the island. The students were asked to indicate their problems on the Mooney Problem Check List (High School Form). A teacher, familiar with the particular group and with each student's subject grades, was then asked to indicate by letter rating A, B, C, D, E his or her opinion of the student's overall achievement level. This having been done for each child who filled out the Mooney Problem Check List, the teacher was then asked to go through the list of students and indicate, with an asterisk, any students whose designated achievement level was felt to be at least two categories on the scale below the level of which he was capable (if working at full capacity). In this study these students are the ones referred to as 'under-achievers'.

Four hypothesis were examined: (1) There will be a relationship between the total number of identified problems on the Mooney, and high or low achievement.
(2) Students identified by teachers as being 'underachievers'

will have a significantly larger number of problems than the 'normal' achieving group. (3) The 'All-Girl' schools will indicate significantly more problems than the 'All-Boy' or the 'Mixed' (co-educational) high schools.
(4) There will be no significant differences between the number of problems identified by 'rural' as opposed to 'urban' high school students.

The findings of this study supported the third and fourth hypotheses. Regarding the first hypothesis, no significant relationship was found between total number of problems and achievement. There was no support for the second hypothesis. The identified underachievers did not indicate significantly more problems than normal achievers.

Undoubtedly there are marked differences in the findings of this study, compared to those of Sandefur and Bigge (1966) on which it was based. However, there were similarities to findings of other studies using the Mooney and nevertheless, valid insights were obtained. The results provided a base for recommending possible changes that might enhance the educational environment and development of the Jamaican high school adolescent.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement and Importance of the Problem

There is continuing interest in the area of adolescent development and educational needs. John Figueroa, head of the Faculty of Education, University of the West Indies feels that "West Indian education has to be concerned with helping people to become certain kinds of people; not only for their own benefit but also for the sake of creating a viable society and avoiding bloodshed and complete breakdown (Figueroa, 1971, p. 168)." This is of course true in all societies, but is particularly so in the West Indies where a colonial legacy of peculiar educational patterns leaves several irrelevances and injustices to be corrected. The writer has discussed these 'patterns' in greater length in Chapter III, since she sees them as vital to the understanding not only of the present problems and trends in Jamaican education, but also in the part that any school counseling service would have to play.

Whereas the concern of education for the development of the 'whole person' is important at all stages of a child's school and home life, this study concentrates

mainly on the group known as 'Adolescents'. This stage of development has been widely studied in the western world and it is realized that during this crucial time in a child's development certain distinct changes take place in the bio-social status of the individual. Throughout the transition from child to adult, certain adaptations to social expectations and some personality organization occurs. Problems of adjustment due to these changes often arise. It is not being suggested that the change is traumatic and disturbing for most individuals, but rather, evidence of the importance of the emotional and social development taking place during adolescence should convince educators of the need to consider this aspect in educational planning. As Figueroa (1971) stated--"The kind of education which really contributes to moral, social and aesthetic growth cannot be left to chance (p. 168)."

Warm, understanding and informed parent-child relationships cannot always be relied on to meet the many needs of the adolescent. In the Third Caribbean Conference for Mental Health, April 1961, the theme was "The Adolescent in the Changing Caribbean." At that time a paper was presented by B. Moyston, entitled--"Problems of the Jamaican Adolescent," where, while acknowledging the matriarchial type of family system commonly found in the society, the author observed that amongst both rural and urban adolescents she found little social interaction between parent, guardian and young person and there was "...no one with whom the

adolescent could discuss his future." She went on to state that in many instances the teacher became the parent substitute and this was especially noticeable in the secondary schools for boys (pp. 41-2).

It is during adolescence that important decisions regarding future and possible careers have to be made, and schools should realize the importance of available counseling and vocational guidance services for students. Ausubel (1968) suggested that the appropriate treatment of personality disorders calls for qualifications beyond the training of the teacher. The writer would agree with this view, while also recognizing the fact that the average teacher often does not have the time required to deal with such problems. Besides, as there is evidence that family, environment and personal-social problems affect school achievement and could result in some underachievement, then there seems even more reason for schools to offer the services of people trained to help cope with these problems.

This study was undertaken in an attempt to find out the extent to which these issues and problems exist in Jamaican high schools. A comparison was made between problems of Jamaican high school students and those of other adolescents in schools in the United States. If the findings indicate similar relationships between certain problems and school achievement, as well as marked trends in identifying problems by students in particular types of high schools, then the writer hopes to recommend that along

with other possible changes, schools in Jamaica make wider use of professional guidance and counseling services. These may be ways of more adequately fulfilling students' personal and vocational needs. In 1974 there have been very few counseling services established, at the high school or elementary level, outside the Kingston and St. Andrew areas of Jamaica. The writer sees the availability of such a service to be an important part of the student's educational experience.

Methods and Procedures

The chief instrument used in this study was the Mooney Problem Check List. The designers of the Check List state that it is not intended as a test, and the data provided must be studied in terms of particular people in a specific situation. One of its many possible uses (stated in the Manual) is--to conduct research on the problems of youth: (1) to show changes and differences in problems in relation to age, sex, social background, school ability, interest patterns and so on, (2) to discover clusters of associated problems, (3) to measure changes brought about by a planned problem reduction program.

Studies using this particular test have been conducted by Chun (1947) in Hawaii, and Combs (1941) in a typical American community, who used the Mooney Problem Check List with high school students. More recent studies, which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter II,

have been done by such people as Cutsumbis (1968) and Washington (1973). The latter felt that the Mooney was an important tool which could be used in the process of "fact-finding," essential for "intelligent planning of help-oriented programs of action (Washington, 1973, p. 248)." They attempted to determine the prominent problem areas of the students, with related social class, racial, academic and sex differences. Also, Chun used his findings as a basis for curriculum re-organization.

In this study, the writer followed a procedure similar to that of Sandefur and Bigge (1966) who administered the Mooney Check List, along with an Achievement Test, to high school students in Kansas. Their aim was to determine whether adolescent personal and social problems would affect school achievement. Their findings were that there were significant correlations between achievement and the subtest areas on the Mooney related to School concerns, Home and Family concerns, as well as the composite number of problems indicated on the Check List.

Here, the Mooney Check List was also used but, unlike the Sandefur study, the achievement variable was not measured by a standardized achievement test. Rather, it was a rating of students by their teachers on an A (Very Superior), B (Superior), C (Average), D (Inferior), E (Very Inferior) basis. In this case then, achievement was relative to a student's particular group in school--his overall achievement, based on grades and, as judged by his teacher.

This was considered a more suitable measure of achievement for this particular study; firstly, because standardized achievement tests are seldom, if ever, used in Jamaica. Secondly, sociological studies in Jamaica have shown that when some standardized tests were used (such as the Common Entrance Examination) the rural groups do significantly poorer than the urban groups. Since some rural schools are a part of the sample under study, it was considered more valid to obtain ratings for them relative to their particular group, rather than comparing them with the urban group of the sample. Finally, since the study was composed entirely of fifth form students, preparing for the Cambridge G.C.E. O.Level examinations, their teachers were being required to give assessments as to their capacity and readiness for this examination. (This screening is often done in the early part of the year). The writer therefore considered the time when the study was conducted (January) to be a pertinent one in which to request as accurate a teacher rating of achievement as would be possible.

The sample consisted of 198 students randomly selected from the fifth forms of eight high schools--five to be found in urban and three in rural areas of Jamaica. Any child, irrespective of his background, can attend these schools as long as he is able to gain admission through the Common Entrance Examination. Pupils therefore represent quite a broad range of social class backgrounds.

This study used students from the fifth forms (in all cases). This level was selected because it covers the age range of 15 to 18 years, thereby fitting well within the stage known as adolescence. It was hoped such a sample would provide a basis for meaningful comparison with other studies of adolescents.

Data Collection

The principals of the schools were contacted by letter or phone and the purpose of the study explained. Once permission was obtained for the Check List to be administered, then a time was arranged when one of the fifth form groups would be available. Testing took place between January and February 1974 (about half-way through the school year) and was administered by the writer in some cases, and at other times by a teacher from the school. In the latter case specific instructions were given to the teacher (Appendix A). The person overseeing the Check List remained with the students while they filled out the form. They were encouraged to answer honestly and were assured of confidentiality. Students had as much time as they needed to complete the form and were only required to do the first and second steps of the test--which was to underline and circle pertinent problem areas from among 330 items.

Usually, while this was taking place, the teacher who was responsible for assigning the achievement grade

undertook to fill in these forms. This took place away from the room where the group was filling in the Check List. On the Achievement form the teacher was asked to assign a letter rating, based on subject grades and what he or she felt was the current achievement level of each student participating in the study. The same teacher was then asked to go through the forms again and indicate with an asterisk, any student whose indicated level of achievement he felt to be at least two categories below that of which he was capable, if working at full capacity. (In other words, any student who it was felt was 'underachieving' by at least two categories on the achievement scale).

The Mooney Check Lists were then hand scored, for each individual, and identified problem scores were allocated to the eleven subtest areas of the Mooney (High School) Form. These are:

1. Health and Physical Development (HPD)
2. Finances, Living Conditions and Employment (FLE)
3. Social and Recreational Activities (SRA)
4. Courtship, Sex and Marriage (CSM)
5. Social-Psychological Relations (SPR)
6. Personal-Psychological Relations (PPR)
7. Morals and Religion (MR)
8. Home and Family (HF)
9. The Future: Vocational and Educational (FVE)
10. Adjustment to School Work (ASW)
11. Curriculum and Teaching Procedure (CTP)

A complete score for all areas was also recorded. Besides information as to whether there was a relationship between overall score, specific problem areas and student's achievement rating, an attempt was also made to determine whether those students identified by teachers as being 'underachievers' would have significantly more problems than 'normal' achievers. Other aspects, such as possible rural-urban trends or sex differences in responding to the Mooney, were also observed.

Limitations of the Study

In some cases specific instructions were sent to the schools, whose personnel undertook to administer the Check List. Here, it is possible that some inconsistency could have occurred in the administering of the test, because of the variety of persons involved.

Although a standardized achievement test would have made statistical analysis easier, it was decided not to use one--for reasons already stated. This however meant that a great deal depended on the ability and insight of the particular teacher to accurately determine a student's achievement level and identify cases of 'under-achievement'.

Definitions

For purposes of this study the following definitions were used:

Rural school

One situated in an agricultural area, often surrounded by farms and small villages.

Urban school

A school located in a city.

Mixed school

A co-educational high school. (These are in the minority in the Jamaican situation).

Segregated schools

The more commonly found high school, segregated on the basis of sex (after the British school system). These are the 'All-Boy' and 'All-Girl' high schools discussed in this study.

High Achievers

Students given an A or B letter rating by teachers.

Low achievers

Students given a C, D or E letter rating by teachers.

Problems and Concerns

These terms are used interchangeably in referring to scores on the Mooney.

Rural students

Students attending the rural schools, from adjoining areas.

Urban students

Those attending city schools, but including students from rural areas.

Underachievers

Students whose indicated achievement level was felt, by the teacher, to be at least two categories on the scale below that of which they were capable.

Normal achievers

Students whose indicated level of achievement was felt to be consistent with their ability.

Overview

Chapter I introduced the aims of this study, outlining the purpose and importance as well as its limitations. Chapter II reviews some literature relevant to this study, including reference to several other studies in which the Mooney Check List was the basic instrument. Chapter III describes the historical background and development of Jamaica's peculiar pattern of education. This is necessary to the understanding of existing attitudes and patterns. Chapter IV is an analysis of the data and Chapter V consists of interpretations of the actual findings and recommendations for various groups influential on the adolescent's learning and development.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The samples of individuals studied here all fit into the age group known as 'adolescence', of which Fleming (1963) said--"It refers not merely to the years of physiological maturing, but to the period of personal and social development which usually occurs at the same time that the physical changes take place (p. 2)." This chapter will review some general aspects and implications of adolescent development, underachievement in this age group, and make reference to a number of related studies on the problems of youth, which utilized one form or another of the Mooney Problem Check List.

Education and Adolescent Development

The function of the school in today's society is a topic which is much debated and discussed. However, if one should venture a definition, it could be broadly stated that the function of the school is to integrate the young into society. If this view were to be accepted, it follows that a sound curriculum must take into consideration--the nature of society, the nature of the young, the process by which the young become integrated into society and the role of the school in the process (Sharpe, 1951, p. 15).

Figueroa (1971) in discussing 'Schools, Society and Progress' stated the following as a priority worth considering:

> In view of the fact that social, economic, and value conditions lead to a deal of frustrations in the West Indies, to what extent should teaching and education be considered as a certain sort of therapy?...therapy in a general sense is needed. It is most important and a matter of priority, to consider the role of teaching as therapy, in a society moving more and more into violence, suffering from unemployment, nursing old grievances and seeing little done about new ones... (p. 173).

Based on their 1940 study of adolescent development, the Committee on Workshops for the Progressive Education Association stated that although they did not consider the attainment of adequate social relations to be the only goal of students during puberty and adolescence, it was evident that "preoccupation with personal-social concerns colors the student's response to the opportunities for intellectual growth which the school offers (Meek, 1940, p. 79)." From this study, they concluded that guidance in social relations was an integral part of every aspect of the school life. Whereas they, like Figueroa, feel that such guidance should be implicit in the goals and ways of every teacher, they specify that it must be explicitly structured. The slogan "Every Teacher a Counselor" they felt to be not possible in practice and separate arrangements must be made to provide students with a counselor (Meek, 1940, p. 97-8).

Adolescent Personal-Social Development

While intellectual variables are the best pre-

dictors of academic achievement, non-intellectual correlates are also known to be influential on academic performance. The writer would agree with Ausubel (1968) when he stated:

> Particularly during adolescence, current problems of adjustment--vocational choice, emancipation from parents,...relationships with peers, adults and members of the opposite sex--are very real and important to pupils. Psychologically, these developmental tasks are too urgent to be ignored. Hence, education must perforce be concerned with problems youth consider to be important (p. 41).

This statement serves to re-emphasize the importance of the school recognizing the needs of the child, in a period of his life when social adjustment and inter-relationships are of as much importance as intellectual proficiency. However, this important task of facilitating healthy, well-rounded development requires the joint efforts and involvement of all those directly concerned with the adolescent. Fleming (1963) felt that "...there probably has been no other time in education's history in which the combined efforts of home and school have been as important to the child as is the case today (p. 471)."

Studies of achieving and underachieving adolescents have also suggested that a relationship exists between certain personality traits, inadequate personal-social development and student achievement. Jones (1968) found that adolescent identity, student self-concept and self-expectations appear to be positively related to scholastic achievement. Oakland's study (1969), using the Edwards

Personal Preference Schedule, found that there were certain personality traits which distinguished 'underachievers' from 'overachievers'. A similar, earlier study by Gough (1955) using the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), indicated that 'asocialization' was characteristic of gifted underachievers. On the CPI his gifted underachievers tended to score high on the Delinquency scale and low on the Social Responsibility, Academic Motivation (high school) and Academic Motivation (college) scales.

The effect on educators, of the realization of the importance of social learning, is apparent today in increased opportunities for social contacts, and partly in widespread classroom experimentation and discussion of curriculum reform, especially at the secondary level. Despite these progressive attempts at reform, however, Fleming recognized an obstacle that has plagued educators all over the world. This is the fact that educational procedures are not easily modified at any level, and that such modifications are especially difficult to secure for pupils in the years immediately prior to entrance into University or Business. At this stage, the competitive pressures of the need to excel is reinforced by the attitudes of parents, teachers and prospective employers (1963, p. 158).

Despite these difficulties, however, a very interesting study was reported by Redefer (1950), in which during an eight year study in the United States (from

1933-1941), some Universities agreed to accept students, from the schools involved in the study, without reference to the traditional college entrance examinations. With the removal of this external pressure, the schools concerned undertook an educational program involving curriculum experimentation and wider encouragement of personal and social development. It was found that this resulted in no reduction of ordinary academic standards; in fact, the experimental students tended to come out ahead of others according to academic standards. Also, they were more often reported as showing a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive, of interest in contemporary affairs and emotional stability (Redefer, 1950, pp. 33-6).

With regard to this conservatism, which limits change, Figueroa had this to say, especially pertaining to schools in developing countries:

> ...The less settled educational patterns of developing countries (where most of mankind live) make it easier for them to be radical. They can bypass the institutions, methods and curricula of older-established school systems in their eager pursuit of unprecedented but valid objectives (p. XV).

The challenge here is very clear in that educators cannot rely only on past and existing systems of education. It is necessary to think of what <u>will</u> be required, and are now being undertaken on the very "frontiers of Education, where new matrices, new media, new elements and methods of learning are being revealed (Figueroa, 1971, p. XV)."

Influence of Environment on Achievement

Based on the review of the literature so far, there is evidence to indicate that personal-social factors affect school adjustment. Not to be overlooked, also, are environmental factors that play a part in this very complex and inter-related problem. Brief reference will now be made to some studies and findings in this area.

Early studies like those of Spitz (1949), Goldfarb (1945) and Skeels (1939) showed the effects of early environmental deprivation on later emotional development and adjustment. Also, Anastasi (1958) and Bloom (1964) made studies of identical twins, the assumption being that they would be endowed with similar hereditary traits, so any differences found in the achievement of such twins reared apart, would be due to environmental conditions.

In Jamaica, a study done by D. Manley (1959) using socio-economic status as an independent variable, found that environmental conditions--as they relate to social class--have a significant effect on achievement. His conclusions were that "...the results indicate that children drawn from certain social classes show a decided superiority....over other groups (p. 65)." Other studies like that of Ball (1962), done in the United States, found a relationship between social class and intelligence. La Chopra's study in India (1969) also found that there was a positive relationship between socio-economic background and achievement.

Sex Differences in Attitudes

In its November 1966 issue, The National Elementary Principal devoted several articles to the study of sex differences, in the educational context. In his article entitled 'Sex Ratios in Learning and Behavior Disorders', Francis Bentzen (1966) concluded that among school age children, boys tended to be bio-physically less mature than girls of the same chronological age. He also observed that sex ratios, reported in studies of a wide range of learning and behavior disorders, include a significantly higher proportion of males than females (p. 16).

In another article in this issue, Minuchin studied and found general sex differences among elementary school children. Regarding attitudes towards school, this researcher noted that boys were more resistant and negative about school and education, and were less concerned about achievement. Girls identified more positively with school and were more concerned with the achievement and recognition (Minuchin, 1966, p. 46-7). Studying achievement among ninth grade boys and girls in Kentucky, Ball (1962) found that not only were the girls more often high achievers, but they infrequently were low achievers (p. 79).

The implications of these findings then are that the number of under-achieving boys should significantly outweigh the number of under-achieving girls.

Dr. Vera Rubin reported at the Caribbean

Conference for Mental Health (1961) some interesting results of a study done in Trinidad, which the writer considers pertinent as it reflects a distinct attitude in the modern West Indian context. Dr. Rubin noted that compared to a sample of American adolescents--to whom the same questions were administered--the Trinidadian Negro and East Indian adolescent is considerably less family-centered in considering the family as the major source of satisfaction in life. In contrast to the United States, she found that the Trinidadian study showed only slight sex differences in regard to this attitude--the adolescent girls also rated a career as the source of the greatest satisfaction.

Traditionally, the West Indian islands have been matriarchial in terms of family organization. Edith Clarke (1966) in her study of Jamaican family patterns, observed that:

> The child's most intimate relationship in the home is with her (the mother), even in those cases where the father is present and associates himself with the upbringing of the children (p. 158).

This emphasis on the mother as the centre and often sole-provider for the family grew out of slavery when there was no room for the family as a parent-child group in a home.

> The residential unit in the plantation system was formed by the mother and her children with the responsibility of their maintenance resting with the slave owner. The father's place in the family was never secure. He had no externally sanctioned authority over it and could at any time be pysically

> removed from it...it is against this background of the weakness of the father role, in the system of family relationships, that those of mother and grandmother assumed particular importance (p. 19).

Rubin's findings would suggest a marked change in the way that West Indian women now see their role in the society. She explains her findings of the study undertaken in Trinidad in the following way:

> This ambivalence about role performance is also reported for American female College students and reflects, even more sharply, the changing attitudes to family structure and traditional sex roles in emergent societies (pp. 61-2).

Effectiveness of Counseling on Underachievement

The difficulties involved in effective counseling of underachievers is apparent in such studies as Shaw (1962), Braymur and Patterson (1960), Broedel, Ohlsen, Proff and Southard (1960) where there was no apparent improvement in actual achievement, although, in some cases (Broedel, 1960) ratings by parents and counselors indicated a movement towards sounder personality development. These changes toward greater self-acceptance would in itself, make counseling worthwhile. However, reasons for this failure to improve academically have resulted in further research and experimentation with alternate types of counseling.

Roth and Myersburg (1963) challenged the reports of ineffective treatment with an experiment undertaken with underachieving college students. In this study they delineated what they called a non-achievement syndrome--

NAS. The group of symptoms most prevalent and related to it were:

1. Poor academic achievement
2. General self-depreciation; lack of recognition of pleasure at "being"
3. No clear system of personal goals and values
4. Vulnerability to disparagement by others
5. Immature relations with parents
6. Frequent depression
7. Lack of insight about self and others
8. Free floating anxiety (Roth and Myersburg, 1963, p. 536)

Having delineated this syndrome, Roth felt that a psychotherapeutic approach, specifically designed to interrupt the circular processes of disparagement, anxiety, frustration etc. could be effectively used and he went on to describe in detail just such a counseling experience (p. 536).

It is well recognized that underachievers do not comprise a homogeneous group and in view of this fact Mandel (1968) feels that only for the NAS group (earlier defined by Roth), can personality change be expected to produce achievement change. However, Mandel also suggested that the NAS probably constitutes the major diagnostic category of underachievement.

In 1969, Finney found that long term group counseling (about two years), with gifted underachievers

at the high school level, did result in some desirable changes. Such counseling which, as he suggested can be handled by a trained and experienced school counselor, resulted in very little if any change in the student's grade point average but, as in the case of Broedel (1960), teachers observed positive behavior changes to personal characteristics, which would enhance the students social adjustment. These changes seemed to have resulted from having the opportunity to establish a close relationship with their adult counselor and a chance to discuss and work through their resentments towards school and adults (Finney and Van Dalsem, 1969, p. 94).

Studies Using the Mooney Problem Check List

The Mooney Problem Check List has been used widely in the United States, as well as in other countries. The designers make it clear that it is not a test, but is a useful tool in 'fact finding' and in reviewing student problems as they might relate to sex, ethnic background, social class and just general areas of concern to students. Insights into indicated problems have often provided a basis for recommending possible changes and initiating programs that may be helpful in meeting the particular needs of students.

Some studies using the Mooney have indicated that the total number of problems checked by a student tend to vary in several predictable ways. On the basis

of Sex, Garrison and Cunningham (1952), and Clements and Oelke (1967), found that whereas school related problems were given a lot of emphasis by both boys and girls, the boys showed more concern in this area. Generally, the boys tended to score higher in subtest areas dealing with school concerns such as FVE (The Future: Vocational and Educational) and ASW (Adjustment to School Work). On the other hand, the girls seemed more concerned with social concerns and getting along with others--they tended to express more concerns in areas of HPD (Health and Physical Development), CSM (Courtship, Sex and Marriage), SPR (Social-Psychological Relations, PPR (Personal-Psychological Relations) and CTP (Curriculum and Teaching Procedure).

Cutsumbis (1968) found a relationship between social class and areas of concern on the Mooney. Brown (1953) and Esper (1964) had findings which suggested that high achieving students, or those achieving normally, score significantly lower on the overall total of indicated Mooney problems. This was also found to be the case in the Sandefur and Bigge (1966) research--on which this study was based.

Somewhat different results are reported by Frankel (1960) who used the Mooney Check List, along with some other instruments, to determine problems of a very select group of high school students. He found that, compared with the achievers, the underachievers' total score on the Mooney showed no statistically significant difference.

However, an analysis by area of the number of problems underscored showed that, of the seven areas of comparisons, the underachievers presented significantly more problems in the area dealing with 'school' concerns.

A general survey of high school student problems was made by Combs, in a study as early as 1941, when he used the Mooney Problem Check List to determine major problem areas among 1,565 students in Ohio. Another early study, using the Check List, was made by Chun (1947) with high school students in Honolulu, Hawaii. Here, the aim was to study personal problems of the students with a view to recommending curriculum reorganization. In Saskatchewan, Canada, Checkley (1968) also used the Mooney Check List as a basis for a study in which certain students at the junior high school level were selected for group counseling. This selection was based on indications by these students (on the Check List), that they experienced problems in the particular areas of school, people in general, and themselves.

We will now look at a study by Sandefur and Bigge in some detail, as it probably has a closer relationship to the present study. Sandefur and Bigge (1966) administered the Mooney Problem Check List and SRA Achievement Test in order to test their assumption that adolescents have personal and social problems which affect their school achievement. Their sample consisted of 217 eighth and ninth grade students from the Shawnee Mission Public

School in Kansas. The problem areas covered by the Mooney Check List (Junior High Form) were:

1. Health and Physical Development (HPD)
2. School (S)
3. Home and Family Life (HF)
4. Money, Work and the Future (MWF)
5. Boy and Girl Relationships (BG)
6. Relations to people in general (PG)
7. Self-centered Concerns (SC)

The SRA Test yields ten subtest scores, plus a composite score reflecting overall achievement.

Sandefur and Bigge's overall findings were that the coefficients of correlation between the number of problems reported by students, which concerned the 'School', and their achievement (as determined on the SRA) were found to be significant at the .01 level in the ten subtests and on the composite score. Equally significant was the high correlation found between the number of problems of 'Home and Family' reported, and the achievement of the student. Here, correlations significant at the .01 level were found between Home and Family problems, and achievement in all subtest areas except one. Also, the composite achievement score, correlated with the composite number of problems reported by the student, was found to be significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Their general conclusions, based on analysis of

the data were:

(1) The number of school related problems sensed by the student relates inversely to his school achievement

(2) The number of home and family problems sensed by the student relates inversely to his school achievement

(3) At the junior high school age, problems related to boy-girl relations do not significantly affect achievement

(4) The number of social and personal problems sensed by the student in all areas relates inversely to school achievement

(Sandefur and Bigge, 1966, p. 474)

Rationale for Replication

As stated earlier, in this study the writer attempts to explore the relationship between personal-social problems and school achievement. Also, related sex differences in responses and possible rural urban trends have been studied. The related studies cited so far would seem to indicate quite a significant relationship between personality, personal problems and actual school performance. It could be argued that these variables will differ from culture to culture. However, we see that the specific instrument of the Mooney Problem Check List has been used in Canada, and widely in the United States including Hawaii, where it indicated differences in response on the basis of class, sex, ability and ethnic groups thereby providing a basis for curriculum planning.

Indications are that this inventory, by its very general nature, is applicable and effective in a variety

of cultural settings and could make a positive contribution in surveying the reactions of Jamaican high school students, with regard to significant trends and problems which should be considered in educational planning. Knowledge of those problem patterns could assist educators in taking necessary steps towards alleviating the problems and meeting student needs.

It is possible that in a developing country like Jamaica where education is not compulsory and is highly valued, that similar relationships between problems and achievement might not be found. However, the writer was interested in investigating this very aspect, of whether the emphasis on acquiring knowledge and skills has possibly had negative effects on the equally important aspect of the child's personal-social development. In the next chapter a more specific look at West Indian educational development will be taken, to aquaint the reader with its peculiar problems and frame of reference.

Hypotheses

In order to determine to what extent some observations from studies--mostly conducted in the United States--will be found to have implications for the educational situation in Jamaica, West Indies, an 'emerging' third world country, this study advances the following hypotheses:

1. There will be a relationship between the total number of identified problems on the

Mooney, and high or low achievement.

2. Students identified by teachers as being 'underachievers' will have a significantly larger number of problems than the 'normal achieving' group.

In the studies cited earlier such as Kirk (1952) and Ball (1962), there seems to be some suggestion that boys display hostility more openly and are more likely to be underachievers than are girls. On the other hand, previous studies using the Mooney--Deiker and Pryer (1972) found, as did Clements and Oelke (1967), that generally females expressed more problems than did males. In order to investigate whether, in the Jamaican situation where there are mostly segregated high schools, there will be differences in the areas identified by students as well as variations in the numbers of problems (based on sex differences), the following hypothesis is advanced:

3. The 'All-Girl schools' will indicate significantly more problems than either the 'All-Boy schools', or the 'Mixed' (co-educational) schools.

Also:

There will be a larger number of 'underachieving boys' than 'underachieving girls'.

Finally, despite the fact that Manley (1959) found marked discrepancies in the effect of rural-urban environments on school achievement in Jamaica, the writer would not

see these environmental factors creating significant differences in the number of personal-social problems identified by the groups. (It is more likely that there would be a difference in emphasis on particular problem areas). She would therefore advance the fourth hypothesis:

4. There will be no significant differences between the number of problems identified by rural as opposed to urban high school students.

CHAPTER III

WEST INDIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Introduction

West Indian society was on the whole influenced by elements imported from Africa, Asia and Europe. Jamaica, in particular, with an area of 4,411 square miles, is the largest island of a group which was formerly the British West Indies. Discovered by Columbus in 1494, the island was valued by many nations because of its natural resources. The land changed hands more than once during the many scrimmages for possession of it, but the two chief influences were Spain and Britain. It was in 1670 that Jamaica finally passed into British hands.

Slaves from Africa and immigrants from Europe, China, India and Syria, each brought something of their peculiar cultural outlook and character. These different racial strains and elements fashioned a rather complex society, for the proper understanding of which a historical background is necessary. The writer hopes to outline this background, which formed an integral part of and had direct bearing on the development of education in Jamaica.

Saddled by Slavery

In the pre-emancipation period, before 1835,

Jamaica was a slave society where the slaves had, of necessity, to be kept ignorant, not instructed in any arts or skills other than those directly related to their unpaid labour. In such a case they were less likely to contemplate alternatives and resist their masters. Thus, the few advocates of education for slaves in the West Indies, thought in terms of religious instruction. Even this, however, was resisted by the planters, who felt that Christian teaching of the 'equality of all men in the sight of God' was a dangerous doctrine for slaves to be exposed to, and missionary efforts were strongly resisted from the middle of the eighteenth century.

The planters' firm belief in the disrupting influences of Christian indoctrination is apparent in the statement (to the British Government) by the planter-dominated House of Assembly, partly attributing the 1831 slave uprising in Jamaica to religious teaching. Here they blamed various religious sects--Wesleyans, Methodists and Moravians (but more particularly the sect termed Baptists) with "...the effect of producing in the minds of the slaves a belief that they could not serve a spiritual and a temporal master (Gordon, 1963, p. 10)."

Before emancipation, then, what form did education in its limited sense take? The slave children's education consisted of:

- being put in the care of an elderly woman, as early as possible to release their mother for work.

- by the age of six they may have been involved in assisting with the chores around the plantation or property.
- from there they graduated to the cane fields to learn the all-important sugar cultivation, which was to occupy the rest of their lives.

We can see here that any type of formal schooling would have been a contradiction to the whole concept of a slave society. The most reliable means of keeping slaves acquiescent was to keep them busy and the principle was applied early in the life of a slave child.

Although the general rule among the planters was resistance to education of their slaves, as always, there were exceptions to the rule, and some planters did allow Protestant missionaries on their estates to work among slaves. In 1834, five months before emancipation, there were 800 Jamaican children in Moravian schools, one-half of whom were slaves.

Along with this limited and religious-based education for slave children, another type developed. The white planters who were mostly English, continued to think of England as 'home' and those who could afford it would send their sons to be educated in England, particularly in areas of Divinity, Law and Medicine. However to meet the need for grammar school education for the less wealthy white boys of the eighteenth century, several planters and merchants in Jamaica and Barbados requested schools in the islands. Therefore, for white and coloured

pupils of means, the standard classical type of education was sought either in England or by the best available means in the West Indies.

Thus, some private schools, run by Catholic priests, Anglican clergy and private individuals existed before emancipation, but the standards and values of these establishments are not known, as at this stage, there was no 'system' of education either in thought or practice.

What type of social milieu did this type of educational pattern fit into? Eighteenth century Jamaican society consisted legally of three categories: (a) the free, with full civil rights, (b) the free with limited civil rights, and (c) the general bulk of those not free, with no civil rights. The first group consisted mostly of the white inhabitants. Catholics, free Negroes and Jews enjoyed only limited civil rights and black slaves were not free and had no legal rights in society. Culturally too, there were considerable differences between the free and enslaved groups in the society in terms of the development of religious observances, family organization, recreation, folk-lore and so on (Hurwitz, 1971, p. 86).

Post Emancipation Patterns and Problems (after 1835)

The earliest attempts at setting up formal education in Jamaica were tied with those of other British-owned islands in the West Indies.

In 1833 when the act to emancipate British slaves

was introduced into the House of Commons, the idea of a public system of universal education in the West Indies was born. It was obvious, once the slaves were free, that some formal education would be most needed. The earlier attitude of the island's Legislature had, however, indicated that they would not take the initiative in this area, so the Abolitionists had succeeded in having a provision for education included in the Act of Emancipation of 1835. This provision took the form of a "Negro Education Grant" from the Imperial Government, to promote Negro education in the ex-slave colonies.

The nineteenth century was actually the time at which all western countries, now boasting universal education, set out to achieve it. However, the colonial status of the West Indian islands soon led them into a separate line of educational development from other western countries. Firstly, the idea of universal education was imported by government officials and religious groups with a missionary zeal. The depressed Negro, ex-slave population, still under colonial rule and with little prospect of social and economic advancement, had little incentive for developing popular education. This is seen to be quite different from say North America, where a more nationalistic form of education developed, with compulsory education laws which "...rescue children from the consequences of being born of uneducated and depressed parents (Gordon, 1963, p. 2)."

The Colonial Government first had to decide whether education would be best advanced by the island's local Legislature or by the religious bodies, who had undertaken instruction wherever they found the opportunity. Despite the shortcomings of their work, the religious bodies were offered the financial support to build schools and later, to assist the salaries of teachers, as a means of developing a system of education in the West Indies. In a way, the choice of the religious groups to undertake this task was logical, in that the British Government announced in its scheme for the grant that "...instruction in the doctrines and precepts of Christianity must form the basis and must be made the inseparable attendant of any such system of Education (Gardner, 1909, p. 20)."

These missionary organizations were responsible for the details of the curriculum. Instruction, which was to be on a full-time basis for children and a part-time basis for adults, was to consist of the three R's--reading, writing and arithmetic--and also instruction in the principles of religion. Even the colonial administrators realized that this type of education, which reflected the values of class-conscious England of that time, was 'alien'. Also, the economic and social advantages to be derived from this type of instruction in England, did not exist in the West Indies. No provision was made for any type of manual, mechanical or technical education. Concerned with the spiritual rather than the material, "the missionary

organizations unwittingly laid the basis for the negative attitude towards 'vocational' education that is, until modern times, characteristic of the Jamaican outlook (Hurwitz, 1971, p. 123)."

However, problems due to lack of co-operation between the missionary societies, delay and insufficient funds soon showed that the partnership between the religious bodies and the Imperial Government would not fulfill the early dream of setting up an educational system throughout the West Indies. The Imperial Grant came to an end in 1845 and the West Indian Legislatures and workers were encouraged to support the education of their own children. Each Legislature then attempted to deal with the problem in its own way. In Jamaica, little was contributed by the Government to the upkeep of the schools or to teachers salaries. For a time the Jamaican Assembly offered special grants to schools offering agricultural instruction, but, since teachers were not equipped to instruct in Agriculture and the undertaking was much criticized (especially by the Baptists), schooling was in practice confined to Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. On the other hand, the Legislature did not provide the leadership needed for an effective public educational system.

With little support from local government and limited contributions from abroad, the schools had to charge tuition to meet their expenses. This resulted in the majority of Negroes being excluded from the classroom

due to lack of funds, added to which, frustration with a curriculum unrelated to practical everyday life and natural disasters, such as droughts and hurricanes all helped to keep children from attending school regularly. In 1864 it was estimated that "...only one out of five school-age children was receiving full-time or part-time instruction on the island. So 30 years after Emancipation only 13% of the adult population could read and write (Hurwitz, 1971, pp. 124-5)."

Growth of the Secondary School System

In the 1850's, despite epidemics and limited resources, both religious bodies and Legislatures started secondary schools, at a time when they were failing to provide adequate elementary schooling. By and large the religious denominations justified secondary schools on the grounds that they required an educated middle-class laity and in some cases a "native ministry". As would be expected, the content of secondary education was similarly divorced from the practical needs of working people. There was emphasis on the classics and the arts subjects, at the expense of scientific knowledge. The goal was to bring students up to the level of a 'School Certificate' in order to get 'white collar' jobs, of which there were not enough. Also, great importance was given to the small number of University scholarships available to the best students of the year who would go away, mainly to train in English Medicine and Law.

Although the Jamaican Legislature had not the resources to support secondary education until later in the nineteenth century, some schools had been provided by endowments left earlier by wealthy merchants. These were intended mainly to provide education for white boys, whose parents could not afford to send them abroad. Among some of the schools started by these endowments the following are still in existence: Alley School and Manchester High School, established May 1755. Manning School, named after its founder was incorporated in 1738 in Savanna-la-mar. Ruseas School at Lucea and Titchfield School at Port Antonio, while Wolmers was started in Kingston in 1736. Beckford and Smith School in Spanish Town (now St. Jago High School) is the result of combining two bequests. Munro College and Hampton School for girls was originally maintained by the Munro and Dickenson Trust, while Jamaica College started from the foundation, made originally by Charles Drax, for maintaining and educating "...eight poor boys and four poor girls of the parish of St. Ann (Black, 1965, pp. 186-7)."

When these schools started, the teachers, curriculum, books, ideas and values were, as already mentioned, directly imported from England, thereby perpetuating the 'eletist' trend of English public school education. The necessity of fees meant that secondary education was largely confined to the middle-classes, who could afford such fees, and this also usually meant the white or

fair-skinned children. In 1920 the Government began to finance the endowed schools, using the 'payment for results' criteria. Here, government grants were made regularly to schools who could demonstrate their ability to educate children. Schools were examined regularly by an Inspector, who certified them as eligible for grants (this system had been in effect in the elementary schools since 1866). By 1929 there were 25 high schools, but only one child out of fifty received a secondary education, as tuition fees still had to be paid.

In the twentieth century religious bodies continued to establish new schools and government grants were allowed to most of them. As would be expected, however, this resulted in the administration and finance of schools being so "...divided between government and the Christian denominations as to render difficult the formulation of an educational policy, let alone its vigorous and consistent execution (Moyne Report, 1945)."

It must be admitted that the colonial authorities made consistent attempts, during the 1920's to 1930's, to improve the poor educational provision and to shift the emphasis from purely bookish and classical studies to scientific, technical and practical studies. However, only random changes were made, since most of this time was a period of major economic distress, funds were lacking and economic depression has never been condusive to educational reform. Also, Gordon (1963) feels that

these officials having already been responsible for a deplorably deffective system, got little support for their policies from West Indian leaders. The latter were beginning to prefer their own solutions to West Indian problems.

Developments Between 1940 and 1960

During this period there was an increased enrolment of over 14,000 students in secondary schools (Vernon, 1961, p. 9). As control passed into West Indian hands development in education was fairly marked. There have been the usual financial problems and External Aid, in the form of grants from American foundations and organizations are valuable additions which are usually given to projects which could not otherwise be undertaken.

Some of the improvements in Education were:

1. Increased school building programs.
2. Increased teacher training.
3. Curricula has been tackled and new syllabuses written to incorporate West Indian material instead of the more alien topics previously taught.
4. More provision has been made for the teaching of science, practical and vocational subjects.
5. Different forms of post-primary education have been experimented with.
6. An increase in secondary education (this will be further elaborated on).

7. Also, the University of the West Indies increased considerably the prospects of higher education for products of secondary schools in all areas of the West Indies (Gordon, 1963, p. 298-9).

Elaborating more on point 7 above we find that up until 1957 admission to secondary schools was largely determined by the schools themselves, with the provision made for a small number of scholarships for poorer children. Most of the places, however, went to children whose parents could afford to pay the required school fees. In 1956, the Jamaican government took over the responsibility of all scholarship awards and in 1957 the Common Entrance examination, offering to students (between the ages of 10 years and 5 months and 12 years 11 months) scholarships and free places tenable at the secondary schools (Scott, 1973, p. 67). This competitive 'free place' system enabled a large cross-section of the public to aspire to a secondary education for the first time in the island's history.

Despite the improvements, however, the inadequacies were burdensome. Data supplied by the 1960 census showed that in a total island population of 1,609,800 the 12 to 18 age group was 217,800 and at the same time the "...enrolment recorded in all Secondary High Schools for this year was about 16,259 (Scott, 1973, p. 29)."

After Independence 1962

Since Jamaica gained Independence in 1962 the government has attempted many ambitious schemes regarding education. For example, in its 'New Deal for Education in Independent Jamaica' (1966), it called for the enrolment of all children, between the ages of 6 and 15, in schools by 1970. The immensity of this undertaking is obvious, but a valiant attempt has been made to shift the emphasis from the elitist attitude to one of civic right. Towards this end, a diversified secondary education program was introduced since 1966 and 50 new Junior Secondary Schools were constructed. These schools, unlike the traditional Secondary Grammar schools, where admission was based almost completely on performance in a competitive examination, were to accommodate all children from the primary schools, once they reached the age of 12 years and to provide a kind of free secondary education for them between ages 12 and 15 years.

Scott (1973) outlined the development, after Independence, of the secondary and post-secondary educational system in Jamaica as follows:

First Cycle Secondary Education

(a) Junior Secondary Schools

(b) The Senior Department of All Age Schools

(c) The Comprehensive Schools

Second Cycle Secondary Education

(a) Grammar Schools (Grades 7-13)
(b) Technical High Schools (Grades 8-11)
(c) Comprehensive Schools (Grades 7-11)
(d) Vocational Schools (Grades 10-11)

Post Secondary Education

(a) The Jamaica School of Agriculture
(b) Teachers Colleges
(c) The College of Arts Science and Technology
(d) The University of the West Indies at:
    1. The Mona Campus--Jamaica
    2. The St. Augustine Campus--Trinidad and
    3. The Cave Hill Campus--Barbados (pp. 73-4)

Common Problems of Developing Countries

It is well known that developing countries hold great expectations as far as education is concerned, to solve their many problems. Adams (1969) in discussing education in developing countries recognizes this commonly found faith that education can contribute to the country's goals and economic growth, nationhood and enhancement of human dignity. "They wish to bolster their status in the world community, strengthen national cohesion, eradicate neo-colonialism and spread modern attitudes (p. 123)." He goes on to say that developing countries are trying to modify their educational systems so as to make them more efficient in achieving these national goals. This

consideration comes in the form of new instructional techniques, new curricula and to the provision of new linkages between education and other institutions. Some of the obstacles to the realization of these goals are:

(1) Shortage of Qualified Teachers

(2) Pupil dropouts

(3) Inappropriate nature of curricula

(4) Imbalance between rural and urban advancement

(5) Lingering conservatism in the values found in educational institutions

All of these obstacles are apparent in the present Jamaican situation. As has been mentioned, attempts have been made to rectify the first three mentioned above. Numbers (4) and (5) are more difficult a problem as they relate to the social context in which the school finds itself. A good example of 'conservatism in values' is demonstrated by Errol Miller's study (1967) where in examining the ambitions of Jamaican adolescents in two urban senior schools, he came up with the following results:

TABLE 1

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF STUDENTS AS JUDGED BY THEIR PARENTS' OCCUPATION

Parents Occupation	3rd Year		1st Year	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Higher Professional	-	-	-	-
Lower Professional	-	6.5%	3.3%	9.5%
Clerical & Highly Skilled	11.5%	25.8%	16.7%	16.7%
Skilled	50.0%	51.6%	48.7%	45.2%
Semi-Skilled	26.9%	7.5%	16.7%	11.9%
Unskilled	11.5%	6.5%	11.3%	16.7%
Casual Labour	-	2.8%	3.3%	-

Source: Caribbean Quarterly, 13 (March 1967):31.

The categories were classified as follows: Higher Professional--doctors, lawyers, managing directors, professional engineers. Lower Professional--technical engineers, surveyors, civil servants, teachers. Clerical and Highly Skilled--stenographers, nurses, druggists, salesmen. Skilled--tailors, dressmakers, carpenters, drivers. Semi-skilled--postmen, waiters, bartenders. Unskilled--domestics, fish vendors, gardeners. Casual Labour--occasional road work and other simple forms of routine work.

Miller (1967) summarized his data as follows:

> Forty-eight percent of these parents belong to the Skilled category, while approximately 17.5% belong to the Clerical and Highly Skilled and 15% to the Semi-Skilled category. If from these occupations the children were placed into social classes, it would be reasonable to say that they--the majority, that is--come from lower middle to middle-middle class homes (p. 31).

TABLE 2

VOCATIONAL REFERENCES OF STUDENTS

Vocational References	3rd Year		1st Year	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Higher Professional	56.3%	2.6%	70.5%	12%
Lower Professional	9.4%	16.4%	8.8%	18%
Clerical & Highly Skilled	12.4%	68.4%	2.9%	60%
Skilled	21.8%	12.5%	17.6%	10%
Semi-Skilled	-	-	-	-
Unskilled	-	-	-	-
Casual Labour	-	-	-	-

Source: Caribbean Quarterly, 13 (March 1967): 31.

Comparing Table 1, showing the actual vocations of the parents with the vocational choices of the students shown in Table 2, we can see the value which is still placed on academic education for the realization of social mobility.

D. R. Manley, in another study done in Jamaica in 1963 notes that "...success in the common entrance examination appears to be positively related to the degree to which an area is urbanized (p. 55)." Camacho (1970) does not consider this surprising since these particular tests used were designed for the highly urbanized society of Great Britain and since the cultural differences between the urban and rural areas of Jamaica are so great, one would expect the urban children to perform better than their rural counterparts (p. 108).

It is precisely because of the constraints necessary in educational development, due to shortage of

financial resources, that developing countries must put careful thought and planning into their total educational system. In speaking to teachers (1966) on "Education for Jamaica's Needs," John Figueroa raised the question, so crucial to many in developing countries, of 'what education might be or do'. One of the questions the teachers were encouraged to ask themselves was--"Are human beings so constituted that we can expect education to work automatically? (p. 5)." In speaking of producing different kinds of people, skilled, well-rounded personalities for example--we assume that by exposing them to certain activities we will automatically make them into certain "products." Education, although important, is not magic and is certainly not automatic. Figueroa recognized the fact that great emphasis is placed on examinations and their results, and very little on the process through which results are gained. However, he feels that in Education, ends and means are closely linked and mutually affect each other--"How a person learns what he learns is in the end what he learns. We cannot in underdeveloped countries simply say that we will go for quantity now, and look after quality hereafter (p. 27)." It is in regard to this qualitative aspect that the writer feels that self-examination, willingness to change and expanded guidance services, for pupils, their parents and guardians, can do much to enrich the Jamaican educational system.

Existing Guidance Services in Jamaican Schools

In 1961, the foundations of the Guidance program in schools were laid, under the leadership of Dr. Helen Powell of the U. S. Agency for International Development. In 1962-3, in order to prepare themselves to take over the administration of the program, two Guidance Officers--Mr. George Scott and Mrs. Trixie Somerville outlined a 5-year plan for submission to the Ministry and Permanent Secretary. (At this time it was noted that the need for counseling, as a part of the program in each school, became more and more obvious as "the number of under-achievers who were referred to the Guidance Office increased (Ministry of Education, Annual Report 1962-3)."

Although Guidance Newsletters were sent out to schools and attempts are made to visit some schools, there are to the writer's knowledge very few full or part-time counselors in Jamaican schools. Where it exists, the high school guidance program includes--individual counseling (personal, educational and vocational), Group Guidance, Career Days or Weeks, visits to occupational centres and, increasingly, Family Life Education, including Sex Education.

On being asked to what extent Guidance services now exist in Jamaican high schools, the Guidance Supervisor Mrs. Trixie Somerville, was only able to indicate that most schools have been exposed to the Guidance program and encouraged to set up Guidance Committees, even if a

qualified Counselor is not available. However, they have "...no way of knowing just how many schools have an ongoing guidance programme." The reasons for this lack of data is due to a "limited and overworked staff."

This staff now appears to consist of the Supervisor--Mrs. T. Somerville, (Mr. George Scott, the other original Guidance Officer, resigned during 1963-4), the Education Officer for Guidance--Mrs. June O'Gilvie and 17 U. S. Peace Corps Guidance Workers. These Peace Corps Workers mostly serve the Junior High Schools, but try to encourage high schools, especially outside the Kingston and St. Andrew area, to set up Guidance Committees.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter presents the analysis of the data based on the indicated personal problems of 198 Jamaican high school students and their achievement levels. In comparing any two groups, t-tests of significance between means were used and correlations of co-efficients computed. Analysis of Variance, using Scheffe Multiple Comparison of Means was used on comparing the All-Boy, All-Girl and Mixed high schools. The eleven subtest areas on the Mooney, the total score and the students' achievement rating, comprised the thirteen variables studies.

Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis predicted that there would be a relationship between the total number of identified problems on the Mooney and high or low achievement. Analysis of Variance, for three groups comprising the total sample, has been shown in Table 3. Inspection of this Table indicates that the first hypothesis was not supported. There appears to be no relationship between the total number of problems indicated by the student and high (A or B) or low (C, D or E) achievement levels. School X Achievement interaction was not significant ($F<1$). Also, on only

one subtest scale, Adjustment to School Work, was a significant relationship found, ($p \leq 0.05$), to achievement level.

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE BETWEEN HIGH AND LOW ACHIEVERS, AND TOTAL MOONEY SCORES

Source	d.f.	MS	F	p
A (All-Boy, All-Girl, Mixed schools)	2	2866.02	3.48	0.03
B (High and Low Achievers)	1	907.78	1.10	0.29
A x B	2	269.87	0.32	0.72
Error	194	822.58		

Hypothesis II

A second hypothesis sought to evaluate whether students, classified by teachers as being 'underachievers' would have significantly more problems than those regarded as 'normal' achievers. (Here, the 'normal' achievers included people achieving at a low level, but who were not considered to be underachieving).

There was no support for this hypothesis. Table 4 shows that the underachievers did not indicate significantly

more problems than the rest of the group. In fact, on only one subtest area did the underachievers indicate more problems than the normal group. This was on the Home and Family scale ($p \leq 0.04$).

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF MOONEY PROBLEM AREAS: UNDERACHIEVERS AND NORMAL ACHIEVERS

Variables	Underachiever M	Underachiever S.D.	Normal Achiever M	Normal Achiever S.D.	t	p (one-tailed)
1. HPD	3.13	2.49	3.40	2.66	-0.46	0.32
2. FLE	4.61	4.76	4.53	3.80	0.09	0.46
3. SRA	3.65	4.02	4.82	3.57	-1.44	0.07
4. CSM	2.91	2.95	3.78	3.51	-1.13	0.13
5. SPR	3.87	3.29	4.55	3.77	-0.83	0.20
6. PPR	6.43	4.62	5.51	3.93	1.03	0.15
7. MR	4.07	3.21	4.82	3.83	-0.93	0.18
8. HF	4.96	4.88	3.55	3.50	1.72	0.04*
9. FVE	3.17	4.09	3.82	2.99	-0.92	0.18
10. ASW	6.65	4.68	6.03	3.46	0.77	0.22
11. CTP	4.70	3.67	4.37	3.76	0.39	0.35
12. Total	48.13	34.53	49.12	28.33	-0.15	0.44
13. Achiev.	3.43	0.51	2.77	0.68	4.58	0.00

*Indicates significance at .05 level

d.f. = 196

Hypothesis III

This hypothesis predicted that in Jamaica, there would be significant sex differences in the responses between the All-Girl, All-Boy and Mixed high schools. The findings supported this hypothesis. Table 5 showed that the All-Girl schools indicated significantly higher scores than the All-Boy schools, in areas concerned more with social growth and development. These particular areas were Social Recreational Activities ($p \leq 0.02$), Courtship, Sex and Marriage ($p \leq 0.01$), Health and Physical Development ($p \leq 0.03$) and Adjustment to School Work ($p \leq 0.04$). This pattern is similar to the findings of other studies such as Garrison and Cunningham (1952) and Clements and Oelke (1967).

The Mixed schools indicated significantly more problems than the All-Boy schools in two areas--Finances, Living Conditions and Employment ($p \leq 0.01$) and Home and Family ($p \leq 0.02$).

Finally, there was not a significantly larger number of boys underachieving than there were girls. Of the twenty-three identified underachievers, 13 were boys and 10 were girls. Also worthy of note in Table 5 is the fact that the All-Girl schools indicated a significantly larger number of problems, on the Mooney Composite score, than the All-Boy schools ($p \leq 0.04$).

TABLE 5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE ON MOONEY AMONG ALL-BOY, ALL-GIRL AND MIXED SCHOOLS

Variables	School	M	S.D.	F	P
1. HPD	Boys	2.75	2.30	3.54	0.03*
	Girls	3.98	2.40		
	Mixed	3.58	2.93		
2. FLE	Boys	3.58	3.61	5.26	0.01**
	Girls	4.22	3.27		
	Mixed	5.56	4.27		
3. SRA	Boys	3.74	2.96	4.03	0.02*
	Girls	5.40	3.96		
	Mixed	5.12	3.85		
4. CSM	Boys	2.57	2.86	6.84	0.00**
	Girls	4.78	3.86		
	Mixed	4.05	3.46		
5. SPR	Boys	3.72	3.91	2.69	0.07
	Girls	5.27	2.90		
	Mixed	4.70	3.86		
6. PPR	Boys	5.25	4.08	1.63	0.20
	Girls	6.56	3.41		
	Mixed	5.43	4.22		
7. MR	Boys	4.69	4.32	0.07	0.94
	Girls	4.91	3.67		
	Mixed	4.67	3.31		
8. HF	Boys	2.72	3.30	4.23	0.02*
	Girls	4.13	3.63		
	Mixed	4.36	3.93		
9. FVE	Boys	3.53	3.18	1.11	0.33
	Girls	3.38	2.49		
	Mixed	4.14	3.40		
10. ASW	Boys	5.42	3.31	3.37	0.04*
	Girls	7.18	3.26		
	Mixed	6.11	3.93		
11. CTP	Boys	4.17	3.87	0.64	0.53
	Girls	4.13	3.09		
	Mixed	4.76	3.96		
12. Total	Boys	42.14	26.14	3.28	0.04*
	Girls	53.93	25.67		
	Mixed	52.37	32.21		
13. Achiev.	Boys	2.87	0.73	10.46	0.00**
	Girls	2.47	0.69		
	Mixed	3.02	0.57		

*Indicates significance at .05 level
**Indicates significance at .01 level

Scheffe's Multiple Comparison of Means used to detect differences.

Hypothesis IV

The analysis of the data as seen in Table 6 supported the fourth hypothesis that there would be no significant differences in total number of problems indicated by rural as opposed to urban groups. There was some indication, however, that rural students had more concerns in areas of Health and Physical Development ($p \leq 0.02$), Finances, Living Conditions and Employment ($p \leq 0.05$) and Social-Psychological Relations ($p \leq 0.03$).

TABLE 6

T-TEST DIFFERENCES BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL STUDENTS IN AREAS OF THE MOONEY AND THE ACHIEVEMENT VARIABLE

Variables	Urban		Rural			
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	t	p (one-tailed)
1. HPD	3.12	2.63	3.98	2.57	-2.10	0.02*
2. FLE	4.24	3.64	5.26	4.46	-1.67	0.05*
3. SRA	4.65	3.34	4.77	4.30	-0.22	0.41
4. CSM	3.57	3.53	3.93	3.28	-0.65	0.26
5. SPR	4.16	3.53	5.26	4.08	-1.90	0.03*
6. PPR	5.54	4.12	5.82	3.76	-0.45	0.33
7. MR	4.54	3.88	5.21	3.45	-1.14	0.13
8. HF	3.56	3.67	4.09	3.79	-0.90	0.18
9. FVE	3.52	3.10	4.28	3.17	-1.54	0.06
10. ASW	6.00	3.56	6.35	3.75	-0.62	0.27
11. CTP	4.29	3.53	4.68	4.24	-0.67	0.25
12. Total	47.13	27.81	53.65	31.59	-1.44	0.08
13. Achiev.	2.82	0.75	2.91	0.51	-0.89	0.19

*Indicates significance at .05 level

d.f. = 196

CHAPTER V

INTERPRETATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine problem patterns of Jamaican high school adolescents and their relationship, if any, to achievement. In Chapter III the writer traced the historical development of West Indian education, especially with regard to Jamaica. The aim was to point out the origins of Jamaica's British-style educational system, the reasons for the development of a matriarchial society and the expected conflicts, between modern attitudes and traditional sex roles, which the present-day West Indian woman is likely to face. In general, this chapter was considered important in providing a necessary framework for viewing the entire study, with regard to the society's values and attitudes towards education.

Many of the problem patterns seem typical of normal adolescent youth in other countries but some were markedly different. While speculating on the trends, it is possible to make recommendations from an educational viewpoint. As in the Sandefur study, the sample group as a whole indicated a significant relationship between student scores in the area of school con-

cerns (ASW) and the student's achievement level. Unlike the study in the United States, however, concerns in the area of Home and Family did not show a significant relationship to achievement. Neither did the total number of problems indicated by the student. The ASW scale showed a relationship to achievement only at the .05 level of significance. The high significance found by Sandefur was not apparent.

In comparing the 'Underachievers' with the 'Normal' achievers, Table 4 (p. 52), the underachievers total score on the Mooney was not significantly higher than the normal achieving group. The only area where underachievers indicated significantly more problems (at the .05 level) was in the area of Home and Family. Assuming that the identification of the underachievers by teachers has been accurate, it would appear that for this group--unlike the others--Home and Family concerns do have a significant relationship to their performance in academic areas. This relationship may in some way be explained by reference to a study of environment and achievement in Trinidad, West Indies by Dyer (1967). He concluded that the educational environment found in the home (that is, what the parents did with the child) affected achievement to a much more significant degree than the socio-economic background of the parent.

In Table 5 (p. 54), comparison is made between the All-Boy, All-Girl and Mixed schools. Here, the

findings are that the All-Girl schools (who have the highest mean on the achievement scale) are also the group indicating the highest number of problems on the Mooney. In other words, in this study, large numbers of problems seem to be associated more with high rather than low achievement. The writer can only guess at the reasons for this. One explanation might be that with the high value placed on education in a developing country, the schools, parents and society hold great expectations of the high achiever, who has to compete with others for the limited scholarships and places to post-secondary educational institutions. Another factor might be the sex difference already mentioned, where in other studies using the Mooney, females tend to indicate more problems than males. Deiker and Fryer (1972) feel that this tendency may be due to cultural sanctions, permitting greater latitude of problem expression for females. Also worthy of consideration is the fact that these students might be bright enough to recognize their problems and are able to resolve them more easily than other groups. Chun (1943) felt that a student who expresses <u>few</u> problems may well be in more serious circumstances than one who expresses many. It could be a matter of his refusing to recognize his problems or being afraid to express them.

Roth and Puri (1967) made some interesting observations with regards to sex differences and achievement. They observed that among hostile, underachieving adolescents

the boys expressed their self-defeating behavior academically while girls (contrary to their hypothesis) did not express their self-defeating behavior in scholastic areas (Roth, 1967, pp. 278-280). Shaw and Grubb (1958) also found similar differences regarding achievement by males and females. The findings of this study indicate that a similar attitude possibly exists among the female adolescents of the sample.

The study of Vera Rubin (1961) has already been mentioned, with its suggestion that the West Indian adolescent girls are as career-oriented as the males. It can be expected that this conflict between modern trends in thinking and traditional sex roles will create considerable concern for the adolescent girl in a developing country.

In Table 5, the highest mean score of any area, by all three groups, was in Adjustment to School Work. Again this is a pattern typical of adolescent group scores on the Mooney, and shows that for the adolescent such things as school work, course content, fear of failure, are of major importance. Also, it may indicate that for many students the existing curriculum is irrelevant and there is general disinterest in the present course content. Whatever the reason it is obvious that the school must constantly revise and update its curriculum, so that it will be more pertinent to the needs of the students. This is especially necessary for a group who is expected soon to join the work force of society and make a useful contribution.

In Table 6, (p. 56) we note that students in rural areas indicated significantly more concerns in areas of Health, Physical Development, Finances, Living Conditions and Employment and Social, Psychological Relations. In a sociological study already mentioned, D. R. Manley observed the marked social discrepancy between rural and urban areas of Jamaica. In view of such studies, then, the high scores in subtest areas HPD and FLE are understandable. Inadequate health services are still a considerable problem in rural areas.

With regard to the FLE scale, where significantly more problems were indicated by rural students, researchers who have found similar patterns have made interpretations which might very well be true also of this situation. Washington (1973) suggests that such scores might show that the student's primary concern is with earning his own money, for whereas many families may be unable to meet the financial needs and demands of the children, the children seem not to be placing the demands on the financially stressed parents, but recognizing the need to help themselves (p. 254).

Mooney found from many studies in the United States, that the average number of problems marked by high school students was 27 (Mooney, 1943, p. 219). In this study, the average number of problems checked by the Jamaican student is 49, which would seem to be a clear indication not only that these students have problems, but

that they are willing to identify them, which certainly warrants the school's interest and attention.

At the Third Caribbean Conference for Mental Health, whose theme was 'The Adolescent in the Changing Caribbean', many papers were presented on the Jamaican adolescent. It was generally recognized that although adolescent problems were widespread, neither the schools nor the rest of society were doing too much to alleviate them. Clarke (1966) remarked that the physical maturing of the West Indian adolescent creates the expected uncertainties and anxieties, but linked to this is the fact that there are 'unresolved personal as well as social conflicts'. She went on to note that:

> The school, if it does not tacitly ignore the situation altogether, as is generally the case, is likely to prohibit a type of behavior for which the child finds no disapprobation in his immediate home and social life (p. 169).

Moyston (1961) found, like Clarke, that with both rural and urban adolescents in Jamaica there was little or no social interaction between parent, guardian and young person. In view of this serious shortcoming, Clarke felt that "...the omission, (of parental instruction and guidance), is not made up by any other agency (1966, p. 169)."

Based on these interpretations and observances, therefore, the writer would make the following recommendations for the combined efforts of Jamaican schools, society and counseling services.

Recommendations

In the preceding chapters an attempt has been made to analyze the nature and importance of the personal problems of students, to point out group patterns and significant differences among adolescents on the basis of sex, ability, rural-urban groups and Segregated as opposed to Mixed high schools in Jamaica. With direct relationship to the findings of this study the following recommendations are made:

1. Especially at the All-Girl school, more attention should be given to the personal-social development of students. Discussions in informal groups and information on sex and family life may be provided to help meet these recognized needs of the adolescent girl.

2. More efforts must be made to assist rural students in getting help and health information from available medical services. Also consideration should be given to the possibility of combining actual work experience with regular schooling.

In light of the total picture and of the general implications, some other recommendations are made with regard to two main areas: (a) curriculum content and teaching methods, and (b) the schools guidance services.

3. Considerable expansion of personal and vocational guidance services at the secondary level.

4. Setting up and selecting testing materials more suited to students in the West Indian context.

5. Establishing some Parent Instruction Groups, not only to assist parents with better child-rearing practices, but to understand more clearly the home environment and needs of the student.

6. If financial limitations do not allow for immediate implementation of professional guidance services, then more emphasis should be placed on training teachers to be more aware of and be of assistance to the child with problems which may be affecting learning.

7. Schools should review their existing curriculum: texts, subject matter, teaching aids, with regard to its relevance to the adolescent and his needs, as well as being relevant to social and economic trends in the society.

8. Schools might also establish programs instructing pupils in such areas as better study habits, preparing assignments and using the Library.

9. Local schools might get together and establish a placement center that seeks part-time employment for needy students, as well as for graduates. (Here, government agencies as well as social business and religious groups should be asked to participate).

10. A less rigid classroom organization, allowing more time for open informal discussion might come closer to realizing what Figueroa (1971) describes as 'teaching as therapy.'

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR SURVEY

For conducting this survey there are enclosed the Mooney Problem Check List (High School) Forms and some Student Achievement Score Forms.

Instructions for Students

- Put your name and age in the areas provided on the front of the form.
- Complete steps 1 and 2, after reading the instructions outlined on the front. (Underlining and circling pertinent concerns or problems for you, the individual).
- As many or as few relevant problems may be checked in each area.
- You have as much time as you require to complete the Check List.
- The scores of individual students will be confidential.
- Answer the questions as honestly as you can, as they relate to you at this point in time.

Instructions for Teachers

- On the Achievement Forms provided please fill in the names of the individuals involved in this survey.
- Based on subject grades and your knowledge of each student, indicate what you consider to be each student's current level of overall achievement.
- Go through the forms again and indicate with an

asterisk* any student whose level of achievement you feel to be at least two categories lower than that of which he is capable (if working at full capacity). In other words, any student you feel to be 'underachieving' by at least two categories on the A, B, C, D, E scale.

APPENDIX B

STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT SCORE FORM

Name .....

School .....

A. (Very Superior)

B. (Superior)

C. (Average)

D. (Inferior)

E. (Very Inferior)